CIVIL SERVICE Journal

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U.S. Civil Service Commission

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ARTICLES

1 Strengthening Executive Development and Training

9 Position Management and Classification
by John D. R. Cole

16 Big Government
by Senator Gary Hart

26 Working for the United States
by James A. Everett

DEPARTMENTS

A Look at Legislation **7**

Legal Decisions **12**

The Awards Story **14**

Intergovernmental Perspectives **20**

Appeals Digest **22**

Personnel Policies and Standards **24**

Personnel Research Roundup **29**

Spotlight on Labor Relations **31**

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WORTH NOTING

☐ PAY INCREASES to average 4.83 percent: The October 1976 increases in salary rates of the General Schedule average 4.83 percent. Aggregate payroll costs for General Schedule employees are to increase by 5.17 percent.

Fundamental changes this year, recommended by the President's agent on pay, are designed to improve methods for achieving comparability with salaries paid for similar jobs in the private sector. These changes involve introduction of weighted averages and adoption of a standard statistical method for fitting the pay curve.

☐ WOMEN SHOW "net increase" of 76 percent: The number of women in full-time, white-collar jobs in the Fed-

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover)

STRENGTHENING EXECUTIVE SELECTION AND TRAINING

WHILE THE BUDGET for Fiscal Year 1977 calls for cutting back in many areas, the President has directed agencies to "strengthen their internal programs of executive selection and training."

Responsibility for working with agencies to carry out this directive has been assigned to Director James T. Lynn of the Office of Management and Budget and Chairman Robert E. Hampton of the U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Stressing the importance of renewed emphasis on executive development—not so much in spite of as *because of* budget reductions—Chairman Hampton said:

"At all times, but particularly in times of budget stringencies, the American people have a right to the best managed government we can give them. Among other things, this calls for career executives of the highest caliber. We must insure that incumbent executives continue to grow to meet new challenges on the job and that executive development programs produce an ample supply of highly qualified candidates to compete for executive vacancies in the years to come."

To find out more about executive development in the Federal career service generally and about specific plans for executive development in FY '77, Tom Kell of CSC's Office of Public Affairs conducted this interview for the *Journal* with Joseph U. Damico,

Director of the Civil Service Commission's Bureau of Executive Manpower.

Journal

I understand that there will be a new emphasis on executive development in FY '77. Just how did this come about and what will it mean to Federal managers in the months ahead?

Damico

Well, as you know, the budget for FY '77 contains a directive to agencies to strengthen their programs for executive development: "With respect to the development of career executives, Federal agencies are being directed to strengthen their internal programs of executive selection and training."

Although that one sentence is a tiny part of the President's total budget for Fiscal Year 1977, it's very significant for people concerned with executive development efforts in the Federal Government. To the best of my knowledge, it's the first time that a President of the United States has taken the initiative to put in his budget such a directive to agencies.

Journal

Other parts of the FY '77 budget call for reduced spending. How can agencies cut back on expenditures and strengthen executive development at the same time? Doesn't that require spending more money for training?

Damico

I think that what the President is saying is simply that top management has to pay more attention to the selection and *development* of key executives. This doesn't necessarily mean additional training courses. While the President said "training," I interpret this as meaning the entire executive development process, which transcends merely formal training, or merely selection.

Formal training, of course, plays a key role; it is an integral part of executive development. And the people who make decisions about whom to send to what courses must apply themselves more than ever to make sure scarce dollars are not wasted. But the President is not necessarily saying *more* training. I think what he's calling for is careful attention to *proper* training, appropriate training, for developing executives—training that's tailor-made to the needs of the

agency and the individual. If we pay this kind of attention, we could have fewer people going to training, but those who do go will be getting training that they really need.

Journal

What other implications does the Presidential directive have for Federal managers?

Damico

That question, I think, is best answered by this joint memorandum, dated April 1, 1976, to heads of departments and agencies from the Director of OMB and the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission.

Following up on the Presidential directive, the memorandum points out that OMB and CSC will support and assist agencies but it's up to them to see that the Presidential directive is carried out.

Looking at a copy, you can see that the memo urges agencies to:

—Select carefully and in accordance with merit principles whenever career executive vacancies occur.

—Develop skills and abilities of incumbent executives.

—Project upcoming executive needs on a regular basis.

—Identify men and women with the greatest potential for effective performance as executives.

—Provide appropriate developmental work assignments and training to high potential employees to establish a reservoir of highly qualified candidates for key executive positions.

—And finally, to ensure that the people who have participated in executive development programs are fully considered when vacancies occur.

That's what agencies have to do. OMB and CSC do a number of things to help.

OMB, for example, requires agencies to submit resource plans for executive development. OMB then reviews these plans and uses them in the budget planning process.

CSC works with agencies on the establishment of executive resources boards. We also issue guidance on executive development and selection, and we provide executive and management training through the Federal Executive Institute, the Executive Seminar Centers, and regional management training facilities.

CSC and OMB together started the pilot Federal Executive Development Program. This is a Government-wide program designed to help prepare a small number of selected GS-15 and equivalent Federal employees for positions of greater responsibility. The FEDP combines formal training, tailored work experiences, and informal seminars.

FY '77 will be the third year such a program has been in existence. It's different this year from the year before, just as last year's program was different from the first program. As I said, FEDP is still a pilot program, and we're still working with it. We want the best possible program format before we decide to make it permanent.

In addition to the other things I mentioned regarding CSC activities in the executive development area are Chairman Hampton's regular meetings with agency Under Secretaries and equivalent officials, in which he discusses executive development along with other personnel management topics. The Bureau of Executive Manpower works closely with other agencies in carrying out their executive manpower responsibilities and handles a large volume of requests for information and technical assistance from agency personnel offices.

The joint OMB-CSC memorandum not only represents a first step in carrying out the President's directive for FY '77, it pretty much sums up what we mean by executive development when we speak of it as a program or activity in the Federal Government. It's a number of different activities, actually—most of them carried out by the agencies themselves; others by CSC and OMB.

I'd just like to add that none of it is "new," not in the sense that executive development is a new policy in FY '77. It isn't. The President's including it in the budget and the joint memorandum and all the rest simply gives added impetus to policies and instructions already in existence.

Journal

How long has "executive development" as a formal program or as a function distinguishable from other personnel functions existed in the Federal Government? How does the Federal Government compare with, say, industry or other levels of government?

Damico

This Bureau, the Bureau of Executive Manpower, was established in the Civil Service Commission in 1967. At that time, industry was light years ahead of us in Government in terms of the amount of time they spent in executive development.

A private industry official once told me that in his company executives spent a *third* of their time in evaluating, assessing, and discussing the potential, performance, and future of their subordinate executives. That's a lot of time to devote to executive development by anybody's standards. Certainly by Government standards. But it indicates the importance that company places on executive development.

The military and Foreign Service, too, put great stress on identifying and developing potential top-level personnel. Of course, there you have a different situation, where rank is in the person. In civil service it is in the position—but I think it's a myth to think that you can't have executive development in the civil service because of this conceptual difference.

I think that in terms of filling positions in the civil service you're seeking for the best qualified persons to promote. All we're saying is that rather than waiting for the vacancy to occur and then trying to turn up a qualified person, *before* the vacancy occurs let's develop those people who seem best qualified for this type of position. Let's develop them to be managers, so that when they compete for selection to executive positions, they're fully qualified and can hit the ground running.

At the present time, the situation is mixed in Government. In some agencies, we might even be ahead of some of the best in industry. In others, we still haven't gotten the message across.

Overall though, I would say that in the relatively few years we've been trying to institutionalize this process in Government we've come a long, long way.

I think if you'd taken a survey as recently as 1970, you wouldn't have found executive development to be a formal part of doing business in most agencies. The first formal notice that the Government wanted to get serious about executive development came in 1971 with the publication of FPM Letter 412-1.

That letter, now part of FPM Chapter 412, was the mechanism that transmitted the first guidelines for executive development programs to agencies. It recognized that such programs had

to be tailored to the needs of each agency, but that all agency programs should have four elements in common—organizational commitment; individual development plans; effective resource utilization; and program evaluation. FPM Letter 412-1 was supplemented in 1974 by FPM Letter 412-2.

Journal

As I understand it, agencies are required by Federal Personnel Manual Chapter 412 and Letter 412-2 to identify their managers and for each manager prepare an "individual development plan." What is an individual development plan?

Damico

The individual development plan or "IDP" is the core of the executive development program. It is a written plan that outlines a program of development for an individual. It can include formal or informal training, developmental assignments, whatever. It's a plan worked out by the individual and his or her supervisor that specifies those developmental experiences that will best prepare the individual to meet potential needs of the agency. And this is very important. The IDP is not just a "wish list" for the individual. The development must be related to agency needs.

Because the IDP is a fairly new concept in Government, we thought agencies could use some guidance. This bureau has produced a booklet, an "*e*xecutive *m*anpower *m*anagement *t*echnical *a*ssistance *p*ublication," EMMTAP No. 2, entitled *Suggestions for Individual Development Planning*. The booklet describes how to develop an individual plan.

It is not a prescriptive booklet; it has nothing to do with "you must do this" and "you must do that." The only thing we say you *must* do is that you must have plans—and this booklet describes ways to develop those plans.

One thing the booklet does is help make it clear that executive development or management development is an integral part of an executive's role. It's a manager's responsibility to develop subordinate managers. A good manager is one who sits down with the employee and talks about the agency's needs and the employee's needs. Any manager who fails to provide for the effective continuity of his program is simply derelict.

But as I said before, development plans must reflect the needs of the agency. If the individual wants to go to the moon when this doesn't have anything to do with the mission of the agency, rather than saying, "fine, fine, work it out with the training people," the manager should tell the employee that he or she is just off base.

Journal

What about people who are not now "managers"? Are there also individual development plans or something similar to bring people into that first managerial job?

Damico

Yes. The FPM requires that IDP's be prepared for each

employee at the mid levels (GS-13 through 15 and equivalents) who has been identified as having high potential for managerial positions. At the present time, however, this is something of a controversial area.

Personnel officers at recent Interagency Advisory Group meetings in Charlottesville, Virginia, had a seminar on this subject and recommended to the Commission that we not worry about "high potential" people until they reach the first managerial level—that once they are at the first managerial level, then they are regarded as having high potential for management.

We think we understand their position; on the other hand, we have this problem. For a significant proportion of executive managers (GS-16 and above), the first managerial position is at the supergrade level. This is particularly the case in professional occupations. We think the recommended procedure could be a step backward in terms of what we are trying to do. And what we're trying to do is provide a cadre of highly qualified people with managerial know-how *before* they reach that first key managerial position. Otherwise we're doing just what we've been doing in the past—filling positions with unknown quantities in the hope and prayer that they'll turn out to be good managers.

It was probably unfortunate that we used the term "high potential" because the opposite of high potential is low potential. We should have put the stress on *managerial* potential. By calling people "low potential" we're saying that the potential Nobel scientist is a low potential person and that is clearly not what we mean. We are moving away from that label because of this.

Journal

Assuming that the present policy of identifying those nonmanager GS-13 through 15's who have "high potential" or "managerial potential" is retained, how is this potential assessed—and who does the assessing?

Damico

Generally the individual manager assesses staff members in the same way he would assess them for a promotion opportunity. Some agencies may also have formal systems in which people would go through written tests, would go through assessment centers, or any kind of valid selection device. That's up to the individual agency. They can have a formal, objective kind of screening or they can leave it up to the managers as they do performance evaluations.

Journal

Shouldn't the system be more standardized throughout Government?

Damico

Not necessarily. Each agency is different and should use whatever system best meets its needs. Moreover, the whole process is a fluid one as we envision it. That is, if you are identified, you are given an opportunity to prove yourself. If you do not pan out, then you're no longer "identified." And equally, if you're not identified at a particular time, you'll have further opportunities to be identified in the future.

Journal

Where does this identification exist, in a person's Official Personnel Folder?

Damico

The individual development plan is the document that blueprints the managerial development planned. This can be placed in an Official Personnel Folder. Certainly these plans must be a matter of record. That's what we're trying to do—to bring executive development out of the closet. There's no question that every agency has a group of people that they've identified, but the identification has tended to be capricious, informal, secret, and all too often, only loosely associated with merit.

We're trying to bring it out in the open, make it subject to merit competition and documentation.

It isn't that way everywhere now, although it is in some places. But this is a big Government and each agency has its own system. Some places, it's very formal, as in the Internal Revenue Service. In other agencies, it is still in this very informal and sometimes nonmerit-related situation. We're trying to move the whole Government out into the open.

Journal

Would you say that the thrust of the executive development program since its inception in 1971 has been to formalize or standardize the system of executive development?

Damico

The thrust has been to *establish* executive development programs throughout Government. "Formalize" and "standardize" are too rigid to use in describing our efforts.

We give agencies the objective and we don't say that you have to fill out this form or you have to do it in 3 days. We don't give them a mechanism. We say here is the end objective. You look at your needs and you devise a system that will arrive at that end objective. And I think that always will be our thrust. We're really not trying to put people into a lock step.

Journal

The core of all this, then, is chapter 412, and that requires identifying managers and people with management potential and preparing an IDP for each of them. And then something else: carrying out that individual development plan, which may involve formal training, or developmental assignments, or something else . . . .

Damico

It sounds on paper like a very simple program and it is in many ways. But the inertia is tremendous. On the other hand, when you find an enlightened manager, it just takes care of itself. An enlightened manager does not need chapter 412 to tell him what to do, because he's doing it. He can see the need for it, the value of it to his organization, to the morale of his people.

APHIS in Agriculture, the Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service, has a beautiful executive development program. The head of that organization doesn't need 412. He just is an enlightened manager who is making sure that his people know how to manage.

They have a 2-year program. This doesn't mean that for 2 years the participants are away from their jobs. It means they're in the program 2 years, they're being developed—but in their present positions. Like a week seminar a couple of times a year, or a 2-week exchange every now and then. For 2 years these people are being developed, with top management paying serious attention to their development, to their assignment, to their progress, to evaluating them.

Journal

OK. I think what you've told me so far has clarified what the program is all about and what it has been doing since its inception.

What will the new direction be, the new emphasis in FY '77? How will it be different in '77 than it was before?

Damico

One of the most significant thrusts we are going to be undertaking in '77 has to do with executive resources boards. Most agencies have executive resources boards, and in many agencies they do an outstanding job of paying attention to their supergrade needs and priorities.

Usually, these consist of the assistant secretary for administration, other assistant secretaries, and the director of personnel. The director of personnel usually serves as the secretariat and the technical advisor; the Under Secretary chairs the board.

In those agencies where it works well, the board considers periodically the resource needs of the agency. For example, are there enough executive positions? Are they distributed properly?

In most cases, however, the boards have not expanded their control and their interest to the point of pulling together the promotional authority and the developmental authority so that one body, the board, is aware of who is getting developed and also has something to say about who gets promoted.

Getting boards to expand to this point will take up much of my time in '77.

Journal

Where do the promotional and developmental authorities lie now?

Damico

The promotional and developmental authority is with managers—different managers in most cases. The training authority lies with a training officer.

So what we're suggesting is that the agency executive resources board expand its concerns beyond just supergrade needs and priorities, that they expand their concerns to the executive development and staffing area. We are trying to pull these two things together so that somebody out in left field isn't deciding who gets developed and somebody at home plate is filling the position. We think these two things must be brought together. And we think the board is a perfect vehicle to do it.

Another area of emphasis for '77 will be to expand the function of executive resources boards in the area of *planning* for executive development. Currently the boards' planning is too often limited to allocation of supergrade positions within an agency, while individual development programs are being carried out by managers throughout the agency. The board, we feel, is the place to pull everything together—executive manpower planning, development, and promotions.

You can't develop personnel in a vacuum. You have to consider the agency's needs in terms of quantity and type of talent needed, as well as just developing people who seem to have potential. The executive resources board would be the locus for coordinating the agency's needs both in short and relatively long

range. By relatively long range, I mean up to 5 years in the future.

This involves not only considering things like turnover, but also where management is going. Where programs are going. What programs are going up. What programs are going down. And obviously that has to be a high management function.

A third thing that we will be getting into has to do with team building. Now perhaps that's a poor handle. But in time maybe we can refine and modify the terminology so that it is more universally meaningful.

We are still very busy trying to institutionalize the concept of the individual development program. And we are still pushing the tailor-making of the development experience to the individual in light of the agency's needs. That will remain a critical core of the program. But once an individual has been developed, it seems logical to us to start paying attention to how one executive relates to another executive in the same organization. It seems to us that we've got to start linking all these executives so that they function as a team, they function together.

What we're saying is, what good is it if an executive knows all the skills and knowledges required to do his job if he fails to realize that he's a member of a team? It's not just his budget that counts, for example; it's the whole agency's budget. Very few individuals can do their jobs properly in isolation.

So part of our effort in '77 will be directed to making known in various agencies what team building is and how it is done.

There are various ways that it can be done, of course. Everyone has their own way of doing it. The important thing is not so much *how* it's done, but that it *is* done.

Journal

One question I have is where do women and minorities stand in terms of executive positions in Federal Government and what is the outlook for the future? What role will executive development play in the upward mobility of women and minorities?

Damico

At the present time, there are about 2 percent women and 4 percent minorities in the supergrade ranks. This isn't good, of course, but the percentages have improved each year for several years. And there are indications they will continue to improve.

For one thing, there are more women and minorities at the GS-13, 14, and 15 levels than there are at the supergrade levels. Executive development programs—based on merit, on competition—can bring these 13's, 14's, and 15's along.

Another is that the minorities in the supergrades, for example, are much younger than executives on the average and have much less government service. Because of this, the minorities are far less likely to be eligible to retire in the near future than the average population. This, of course, suggests that the outlook for the future is going to be good.

Journal

I'd better make this the last question. It concerns resources. An executive development program requires identifying people, writing development plans for them, developing them, devoting a portion of top management time to coordination of executive development concerns throughout the agency, etc. Won't that cost a lot of money? And wouldn't it be just as well to make *no* special efforts to develop executive personnel because the best people naturally will rise to the top anyway?

Damico

Well, as I said earlier, you might have problems budgetwise if you wanted to send someone off to long-term formal classroom training. You just plain may not be able to afford it. On the other hand, there would be no particular budget problems if you switched two employees for a few months so that they could learn each other's job. That might be good for both of them, and it certainly will be good for the manager, because then you'd have two people qualified if the need arises. So it needn't always cost money.

Now, there is an expenditure—an investment of time and effort on your part. And this is not so much a dollar and cents problem. This is a problem of the manager accepting his responsibility for personnel management.

If you were to tell me that you don't need to be bothered with all this, that when the time is right you just pick somebody to fill any given vacancy, then I would say you were a short-sighted manager who just *thinks* he knows his job. You're telling me you really are not a good manager.

On the other hand, if you feel that you're not going to be in your position forever, that sooner or later you're going to leave it, and you feel the Government is entitled to maybe a better manager than *you* were when you leave, then you can't start too early to think about the people in your organization—and about people in other parts of the organization. There's no reason why you shouldn't be interested in someone with exceptional talent, in my bureau for a vacancy in your bureau if you think that's best for the agency, for the Government.

Well, as I say, you can't start too early in terms of developing people. An important part of your job

as a manager is to make sure that this gets done.

Ninety percent of career supergrade vacancies are filled internally. Only 5 percent are filled from outside the agency and 5 percent from outside Government. We pay much more than executive development costs to fill these vacancies with less than optimally qualified people.

For a long time in Government, the leadership talent was there whenever we needed it, but the depression generation has moved off the scene and many of the World War II veterans are gone. We can no longer count on having more managerial talent than we can use.

There are some 11,000 executive positions in the Government and nearly 90 percent of these are career type. About 5,000 are career positions whose incumbents have competitive status. A generation ago the average executive was promoted to his first supergrade position at age 54; today the corresponding age is 44. As recently as 10 years ago the average age of retirement for executives was 62; now it is 57. And the trend can be expected to continue. The average career executive today is 53 years old. Thirty-five percent of present executives are now eligible to retire. Within 5 years nearly 60 percent of this group will have retired.

The implications for executive development are obvious—people are taking on executive responsibilities with far less experience than was true in the recent past and they are staying longer in their executive jobs. This is at a time when the jobs themselves have become much more complex and when the state of the art both in management and technical fields is changing rapidly.

All of Government very simply must make a solid commitment to invest in organizational maintenance and improvement. We will not be able to conduct the public's business effectively unless we do. CSJ

A LOOK AT LEGISLATION

Personnel legislation, second session, 94th Congress, January 19, 1976, to June 30, 1976:

Appeals

H.R. 6227 provides that an employee in the executive branch under investigation for misconduct that could lead to suspension, removal, or reduction in rank or pay shall not be required to answer questions regarding the misconduct unless given a timely notice in writing of the investigation, the specific nature of the misconduct, and the right to have a representative of his or her choice present during questioning. Failure of an agency to so advise an employee provides a basis for an appeal to the Civil Service Commission.

Passed the House. Pending before the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

Appointment

H.R. 5774 provides that a postal employee who completes at least one year of continuous employment in the postal career service becomes eligible to transfer noncompetitively, under civil service regulations, to a position in another agency in the executive branch.

Passed the House. Referred to the Senate Committees on Post Office and Civil Service and Labor and Public Welfare.

Ethics

S. 5, Government in the Sunshine, provides that meetings of Government agencies and congressional committees be open to the public except under limited specified circumstances.

Passed the Senate. Pending before the House Committee on Government Operations.

H.R. 11656, a similar bill, is pending House action.

Hours of Work

H.R. 9043 authorizes employees and agencies of the Federal Government to experiment with flexible and compressed work schedules as alternatives to present work schedules.

Passed the House. Pending before the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

Intergovernmental Personnel

H.R. 4415 amends the Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 to provide more effective means to improve personnel administration in State and local governments; to correct certain inequities in the law; and to extend coverage under the Intergovernmental Personnel Act to the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.

Passed the House. Hearings held by the Subcommittee on Intergovernmental Relations, Senate Committee on Government Operations.

Leave

Public Law 94-136 (H.R. 11438), approved June 15, 1976, provides for expanding present court provisions to cover employees who serve as witnesses on behalf of any party, other than the United States or District of Columbia, in connection with any judicial proceeding to which a State or local government is a party.

Life Insurance

H.R. 7222 was to increase the contribution by the Federal Government to the cost of regular life insurance and accidental death and dismemberment insurance under the Federal Employees' Group Life Insurance Program to 50 percent.

Failed of passage in the House.

Political Activity

H.R. 8617, Federal Employees' Political Activities Act of 1975, was to restore to Federal civilian and Postal Service employees the right to engage in partisan political activities, to protect such employees from improper political solicitations or coercion by superiors, and to continue to prohibit political activity on the job or in Government offices and buildings.

Passed both Houses. Vetoed by the President.

Retirement

H.R. 504 provides for mandatory retirement of Federal employees upon attainment of age 70 and completion of 5 years of service, effective for employees appointed, or reappointed after a break in service of more than 3 calendar days, after December 31, 1975. The 12-year service requirement for purposes of continuing health benefits and life insurance after retirement would also be reduced to 5 years for individuals separated after December 31, 1980.

Passed the House. Pending before the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

H.R. 3650 clarifies the application of the civil service retirement law relating to annuities and pay upon reemployment by providing that amounts corresponding to the annuity allocable to periods of reemployment, presently deducted from salaries of reemployed annuitants and retained by Federal agencies, shall be deposited in the Treasury of the United States to the credit of the Civil Service Retirement and Disability Fund.

Passed the House. Reported by the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Pending Senate action.

H.R. 7053 provides for the elimination of, subsequent to the death of an individual named as having an insurable interest, the annuity reduction made in order to provide a survivor annuity for such an individual.

Passed the House. Pending before the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

H.R. 8550 grants an annuitant, whose annuity reduction to provide a surviving spouse annuity was eliminated when the marriage was subsequently terminated, the right to elect within one year after remarriage whether such annuitant's spouse shall be entitled, if otherwise qualified, to a survivor annuity.

Passed the House. Pending before the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service.

Tax

H.R. 10572 provides that the provisions relating to the withholding of city income or employment taxes from Federal employees shall apply to taxes imposed by certain nonincorporated local governments.

Passed the Congress. Cleared for the Prident's action.

H.R. 10612, Tax Reform Act of 1975, provides in title V for changes in the tax exclusion for sick pay and disability retirement.

Passed the House. Pending final action in the Senate.

—Dorothy J. Mayo

why all the fuss about

POSITION MANAGEMENT AND CLASSIFICATION

by John D.R. Cole
Director, Bureau of Personnel Management Evaluation
U.S. Civil Service Commission

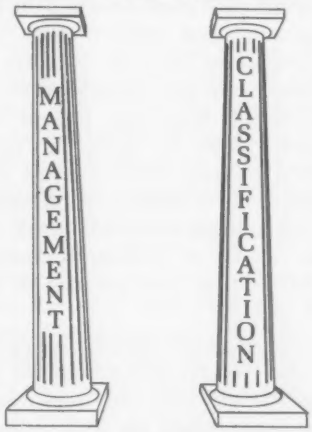
SUDDENLY EVERYONE in Government from the President on down is talking about position management and classification—those familiar, prosaic pillars of the personnel management business.

On May 27, 1976, the President sent a memorandum to department and agency heads directing them to review their position management and classification systems. CSC Chairman Robert Hampton followed up with a personal letter of his own. Then the Commission issued instructions on *how* the reviews should be conducted, which sent agency managers and their staffs diving for the basic directives—OMB Circular A-64 and FPM Chapter 312, both of which date from the 1960's.

The Office of Management and Budget's Circular A-64 defines the scope of position management, which stretches across a wide spectrum of management concerns about efficiency and effectiveness—from the organization of work and allocation of numbers of positions to full utilization of people. The Federal Personnel Manual Chapter 312 describes the critical interface of certain personnel functions, especially classification, with the position management process.

Clearly, then, these are not new words in the Federal Government's management lexicon. So why all the fuss about them now? The answer has three parts:

First, responsible Government managers have to deal with the widespread impression that our agencies are too fat and flabby, that Government workers are overpaid, and that they may, on occasion, even be doing things they should not be doing and ignoring things that ought to be done. We have to confront responsibly the confirming evidence from CSC, OMB, and GAO reviews that in some quarters these impressions may even be true. As the President put it:



"There is evidence of both overgrading and undergrading because positions are either improperly described or inaccurately classified. This creates a situation which is unfair to all concerned. There are also indications in several agencies of excessive organization fragmentation, duplication of work, and superfluous layers of supervision."

The question is, how shall we account for these allegations?

Second, responsible Government managers are wisely reluctant to use old-fashioned "meat-ax" approaches to cut away suspected fat in Government organizations. We know from experience in the not-too-distant past that well-intentioned efforts such as across-the-board budget or personnel cuts reduce the incentive to manage well since both good and poor managers are equally assessed a "fair share" of the reduction. (In fact, these cuts cause crafty budget officers to build invisible "cushions" into their budget requests in anticipation of such arbitrary reductions.)

Where hiring freezes are imposed and needed work must still be done, organizations are often forced to pay overtime or contract out, canceling out any real savings. In other instances, "savings" claimed may merely be expenses postponed. The same problems exist with average grade controls, which if used in inappropriate ways, can wreak havoc with legitimate staffing plans; and they too, like budget figures, are easily and expensively manipulated.

Third, the way responsible Government managers can most effectively control their personnel resources is to go back to the basics of the personnel management system—to position management

and classification. These are the processes prescribed by law and regulation to assure that employees are equitably paid and that their skills are fully utilized.

This is what the President, in fact, has directed the heads of departments and agencies to do. He has asked them to look at their own internal personnel management machinery and to make sure it is working properly, so that each agency head can attest to both the President and the taxpayers that each payroll dollar does indeed buy a needed public benefit at a fair and proper cost.

Implementing the President's Directive

The Civil Service Commission has prescribed some long-term, comprehensive steps to implement the President's directive. Underlying its approach are four basic principles:

First, that the effort must be a collaborative one between the agencies and the Commission. We want to underscore the fact that agency heads are responsible under the law for assuring the strength and integrity of their own position management and classification systems. Just as they are responsible for dollar expenditures, and for managing those expenditures within a prescribed system of fiscal controls, so they are responsible for human resources expenditures, and for managing them with the appropriately prescribed personnel controls. Therefore, each agency is expected to conduct its own internal review of position management and classification, using the guidelines provided by the Commission.

For its part, the Commission is responsible for the strength and integrity of the system nationwide, and meets its responsibility by oversight activities—on-site evaluations, classification audits, and nationwide studies. We will include special position management and classification reviews in almost all of our agency visits this year, and will conduct two special studies: one on the accuracy of classification and another on the causes of change in average grade.

Second, we are committed to strengthening these systems until they are working to everyone's satisfaction. That means this is not a "one-time" campaign. We plan to continue our studies for as many years as are necessary to give us confidence in the structure of these systems and in their effective use in the agencies. We will send a status report to the President at the end of this next fiscal year, but it may be the first of a succession of reports on how position management and classification are improving.

Third, the objective of this effort is to assure the equity of pay to Government employees and the efficiency and effectiveness of Government agencies. It is not a grade reduction campaign or a movement backwards toward arbitrary controls. Quite the contrary. In fact, we shall be on the alert to nip in the bud any excesses of enthusiasm that would result in the kinds of counterproductive controls that have plagued us in the past.

The result we're after is seeing to it that Federal jobs are graded in accordance with the prescribed standards, based on what people are actually doing. When this is not the case, and misgrading occurs, it's unfair to everyone.

Fourth, we have earnestly tried to avoid creating new burdens of reporting and paperwork. We have instituted only one additional report, towards the end of FY 1977, to enable us to compile a status report for the President. Otherwise, all reporting on these reviews will be through regular, ongoing channels using existing procedures. Because position management and classification are integral parts of the total personnel management system, we consider their review an integral and regular part of agency internal evaluation activities as well as our own.

Special Studies on Classification Accuracy and Average Grade

Two special studies are being launched to help us understand better where problems exist and how to begin to solve them.

The first is a study of the *accuracy of classification* of General Schedule positions. We have no statistically reliable information today to tell us precisely how accurately GS positions are classified on a Government-wide basis.

Our reviews of agency classification actions have long been focused on problem jobs. That is, we audit those positions that appear questionable to us for any number of reasons. Over the last 10 years, among the jobs we have audited, we have found about 6 percent misclassified. On the average, between 1 percent and 2 percent were found to be undergraded, and on the order of 4 percent to 5 percent were found overgraded.

But this "problem-seeking sample" is obviously not representative of the entire work force, and we need such a sample to give us a baseline figure, and thereafter, a running account of how good a job Federal managers do in assuring proper classification.

Put another way, the question is what percentage of error is made in the evaluation of Government jobs? We don't know now, and we need to know. If the job is undergraded, the employee is not being fairly paid. If the job is overgraded, the Government and its taxpayers are being overcharged for services. Both of these are clearly wrong. So the question of

accuracy of classification is extremely important for employees, for Government managers, and for the taxpayers.

To find out how reliable our system is, we are initiating a simple one percent random sample audit of GS positions in all the agencies that we survey during the coming year. We are asking agencies to do the same in their on-site evaluations.

The one percent sample will be drawn randomly from the Central Personnel Data File and furnished by CSC to both its own and agencies' evaluation staffs. At the same time that the classification is being checked, the evaluator will also verify the accuracy of the information contained in the CPDF—an extremely important double benefit of this review since information from the CPDF is being used increasingly for various analyses related to public policy decisions, and we need to be assured on a continuing basis of the reliability of its input processes.

The second special study will focus on the causes of major *changes in average grade* by occupation, grade level, and agency. As the President noted in his memorandum to agency heads, the average grade of GS employees has increased over the past 20 years, but our knowledge of the causes of the change is very imperfect.

Some causes appear obvious on the surface. For example, we know that scientific and technological innovations have brought more workers into white-collar jobs. But we don't know how this shift has actually affected the organization of work, at what levels, and in what occupations. Nor do we know how uniformly these changes are reflected in similar occupations in different agencies or geographical regions.

We want to try to understand, from vigorous, systematic analysis, not only what the principal forces and factors are that cause grade escalation, but which are defensible and which are not. Then we can be assured that the remedies we prescribe actually fit the problem. To illustrate, higher average grades may indeed be justified in some occupations, and "holding the line" might be counterproductive to an organization. In that case we would look for opportunities for economies elsewhere, such as in the structuring of "flatter" organizations with less costly superstructure.

Thanks to the existence now of a Central Personnel Data File with some years of history, and to our increasing computer capability, we can rather quickly scan the file—by occupation, grade level, and agency—and pinpoint any significant grade changes. We shall be doing that in the next few weeks, and will then follow through with deeper analyses of why those changes occurred, and whether, in our view and the view of the agencies, they are justified or not. We expect many agencies to initiate their own studies in this area, and we hope that together we can dispel some of the myths and speculation that currently abound on the subject of "grade creep."

Position Management Position Classification

Reviewing Position Management and Classification Systems

Despite its acknowledged imperfections, the current system of position classification is an accepted discipline of Government management. Both personnel professionals and general managers understand conceptually the need to evaluate the worth of work. They may not agree on the standards or the way they are applied. But they agree on the need for standards, and they agree on the need for a systematic way to assess the economic worth of jobs in various occupational categories, by hierarchical rankings, across agency lines. The new Factor Evaluation System being implemented gradually for General Schedule positions will significantly strengthen the classification process.

In sum, most Government managers have clear expectations of what classification systems are meant to accomplish, how they do that, and who is responsible for them. The rules governing the system are further spelled out in law and regulation.

Not so for position management. This critical management function has long been a nebulous area for personnel people and general managers alike. The term itself is uniquely a government term—invented by the Army, if memory serves, to describe how to justify and allocate (i.e., "manage") budgeted positions.

In the mid-sixties the term was adopted by the then Bureau of the Budget to express its growing concern with what appeared to be unjustified grade escalation. In 1965 it became the subject of a budget circular, now OMB Circular A-64. The Civil Service Commission became involved at that time because of the crucial role that classification plays in "managing" positions, and also because of our oversight role in that area. Our evaluation responsibility was then extended to cover position management as well as position classification.

Inevitably, over the years, the concept of position management

has expanded from its initial financially centered concern to a much broader concept. This broader concept includes concern about the *effects* of position structuring decisions on a whole array of personnel management responsibilities such as staffing, training, utilization of employees, equal employment opportunity, career development, etc.

These personnel management responsibilities belong to line managers in every organization, with personnel offices providing appropriate staff assistance. What constitutes "appropriate" staff assistance is currently a question many personnel professionals are asking themseves. While they feel confident of their capabilities in such areas as classification and staffing, many are wondering whether they have the background and training to provide adequate consultation to managers on questions of organizational design. The rules there are changing. We no longer assume that organizations should be built like machines, with precision-like balance and prescribed "spans-of-control." We are acutely aware of the need to be concerned with the impact of position management on the quality of work life.

But personnel people are not at all sure that they have definitive answers. Some personnel people feel that classifiers should be trained to fulfill the "consultant" role. Others think the responsibility should lie elsewhere in the organization. The key questions today in position management appear to be those of role definition and capability to fulfill needed roles.

The elements of a position management system have been defined by OMB Circular A-64. They begin with the assignment of responsibility to line managers for work organization and position management, and emphasize the need to link together all of management's resources—such as budget, planning, management analysis, and personnel staffs—in that endeavor. How to do that effectively is the basic challenge of the position management concept.

We expect the CSC and agency reviews to enlighten us on that subject. Unlike position classification—where we are looking primarily for compliance with law and regulation, and where there is not compliance, the causes for it—we have no hard and fast rules for effective position management.

We are frankly looking for answers to the question of how to translate into action our collective wisdom and knowledge of how best to organize and manage Government's human resources. They will doubtless not be final answers, but they are likely to be very helpful, and we will be reporting them to the President and the public administration community at the close of the year's review. CSJ

LEGAL DECISIONS

During June 1976 the United States Supreme Court decided four cases of significance to the Civil Service Commission.

In the first, *Hampton* v. *Mow Sun Wong*, the Court held, in a five to four decision, that the Commission regulations barring noncitizens, including lawfully admitted resident aliens, from employment in the Federal competitive service are unconstitutional as depriving such resident aliens of liberty without due process of law in violation of the Fifth Amendment.

The Supreme Court specifically did not decide whether the President, via Executive order, or Congress, through legislation, could constitutionally adopt a rule similar to that stricken by the Court. However, there are indications in the majority opinion that while this issue was specifically not confronted, the judges would accept such an Executive order or legislation.

While the Court appears to recognize that the President, having responsibility for foreign policy negotiations, might have authority to regulate the entrance of aliens into the civil service, the Civil Service Commission, having no such foreign policy responsibility, does not. Further, the Court clearly recognized that the Commission could adopt a selective regulation dealing with prohibition against the hiring of aliens in policymaking positions or others of a sensitive or security nature.

The other three significant decisions all involved the area of equal employment opportunity. In

Chandler v. *Roudebush*, the Court held that the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, 42 U.S.C. § 2000e-16, affords Federal employees the same right to a trial *de novo* of their claims as that enjoyed by employees in the private sector. Plaintiff was a black, female Federal employee who, after pursuing the administrative process under part 713 of the Commission regulations, brought suit in the district court alleging that her failure to be promoted was the result of discrimination.

The district court denied plaintiff's request for discovery and a *de novo* trial, holding that a trial is not required where the administrative record establishes the absence of discrimination by the clear weight of the evidence. The Court of Appeals affirmed the finding that the judge has discretion to determine whether the administrative record is sufficient or whether supplementation of the record is required.

In holding that the Act required a *de novo* review by the trial court, the Supreme Court noted that it gave Federal employees the right to file a civil action as provided in 2000e-5(f) through (k) (sections of the private sector Civil Rights Act of 1964) as applicable. The Court held that the phrase "as applicable" applied to those matters that could have no possible relevance to Federal employees, such as enforcement procedures by the EEOC and the Attorney General. The Court further found support, in the legislative history, for its position that although a complete administrative review had been had by the employee, he was entitled to a *de novo* review in the court.

In a companion case decided the same day, the Court held in *Brown* v. *General Services Administration* that the EEO Act provides the exclusive judicial remedy for claims of discrimination in Federal employment. Plaintiff had brought suit in the district court 42 days after receiving a final decision of his agency on a discrimination case. The lower court dismissed the suit on the ground that plaintiff had not brought the action within 30 days of the final agency decision as required by the statute. Plaintiff had attempted to obtain jurisdiction in the district court on the basis of three other statutes, all of which were denied.

In affirming the lower court's decision, the Supreme Court found that the EEO Act provides the exclusive judicial remedy for such claims on three grounds:

(1) The legislative history indicates that Congress was persuaded that Federal employees who were treated discriminatorily had no effective judicial remedy; therefore, this history also indicates that Congress intended by the 1972 legislation to create an exclusive, preemptive administrative and judicial scheme for the redress of Federal employment discrimination.

(2) The balance, completeness, and structural integrity of the Act are inconsistent with the contention that the judicial remedy was designed merely to supplement other possible judicial remedies; the Act established rigorous administrative exhaustion requirements and timely limitations that would be rendered useless upon granting access to the courts under less demanding statutes.

(3) A precisely drawn, detailed statute, such as the EEO Act, preempts more general remedies.

In the fourth of the major decisions, *Washington* v. *Davis*, the Supreme Court reversed the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia and upheld the validity of a written test, measuring verbal skills, given to new recruits by the District of Columbia Police Department. The case was not brought under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, but was based upon a claim that the test discriminated against blacks in violation of the Fifth Amendment.

In deciding the case, the Court declined to apply the more stringent statutory standards of title VII, enunciated by the Court in *Griggs* v. *Duke Power Co.* Rather, the Court held that a law or other official act is not constitutional solely because it has a racially disproportionate impact, regardless of whether it reflects a racially discriminatory purpose. The Court observed that a rule saying that a statute designed to serve neutral ends is nevertheless invalid, absence compelling justification, if it benefits or burdens one race more than another, would have far-reaching effects; and any extension of such a rule, beyond those areas where it already applies by statute, should await legislative prescription.

In making its decision, the Court gave great weight to the District of Columbia affirmative action program and the changing racial composition of the recruit class and the police force, in general, as evidence that negates any inference that the department discriminated on the basis of race. The Court noted that under the Civil Service Act of 1883, which deals with testing, "regulations governing their conduct standards similar to those obtaining under title 7 had to be satisfied."

The Court found that training program validation is sufficient and that looking to success in the training school "seems to us the much more sensible construction of the job relatedness requirements." In a footnote, the Court acknowledged: "It appears beyond doubt by now that there is no single method for appropriately validating employment tests."

—Sandra Shapiro

THE AWARDS STORY

CSC's Office of Incentive Systems is involved in a number of activities designed to help agencies meet their responsibilities and improve their incentive awards programs, and to assist them in the training and further development of people responsible for operation of the programs. Educational materials are developed to meet these needs using oral, written, or audio-visual means, whichever is the most appropriate.

Training Incentive Awards Personnel

Persons whose duties involve the administration of an incentive awards program include incentive awards program administrators and support staff, and employee relations, training, and other personnel staff members who administer or orient and counsel employees on incentive awards matters. For these persons, training and development currently takes a variety of oral and written forms.

Individual meetings between CSC's Office of Incentive Systems staff members and agency personnel provide opportunities for advice on policies and trends, discussion of program performance, and assistance with internal problems.

Regional workshops and annual national meetings with agency personnel permit discussion of nationwide program results, trends, and developments, as well as exchange of ideas and information concerning new approaches and program plans. Typical of the regional meetings was one attended by 140 persons in Alexandria, Va., on June 8, 1976. Problemsolving workshops focused on the importance of effective incentive awards communications and publicity, program evaluation and planning, proper documentation and adequate recordkeeping, and supervisory training.

In addition to these individual and group meetings, awards program administrators are encouraged to attend training programs conducted at various locations throughout the country by the National Association of Suggestion Systems.

Written guidance for those with incentive awards responsibilities is provided in the Federal Personnel Manual. This guidance material was completely revised and reissued May 21, 1976. Legal and regulatory material now is italicized to make it easier to distinguish between requirements and guidance, and new or additional information is provided on such matters as the legal aspects of suggestions, the difference between employee performance awards and quality increases, supervisory and executive recognition, and program evalution.

Also, "The Federal Incentive Awards Program—a Comprehensive Handbook and Guide," is a single source of material designed to inform, guide, and train personnel on how to administer an agency incentive awards program. This publication recently was updated and expanded, and is available now to agencies through rider requisition from the Government Printing Office.

In addition to these publications, special written guidance is published from time to time on recognition for achievements in support of national goals and objectives such as equal employment opportunity, energy conservation, and cost reduction. A bimonthly publication, "Incentive Awards Notes," also provides information and educational articles on the awards program, as well as material aimed at employees, supervisors, and suggestion evaluators that may be reprinted in agency house organs; promotional material that may be used or adapted for use by agencies; and information on current "worth reading" literature on employee motivation and recognition.

Educational Programs for the Federal Work Force

The larger audience of the Federal work force represents a tremendous challenge involving employees of varying grades, educational levels, and trades and occupations. Until recently, most training material prepared by the Civil Service Commission for this group was in written form. It included "Fed Facts No. 1 on the Incentive Awards Program," an orientation leaflet available through the Government Printing Office for use in introducing new employees to the awards program, and articles such as this one in the *Journal* to keep supervisors and managers aware of incentive awards program results, trends and developments, and significant awards made to Federal personnel. Additionally, the Civil Service Commission's annual report to the Congress on the Federal Incentive Awards program has provided statistical and narrative information showing individual achievement as well as overall Government results.

While the above materials are and have been valuable tools for the orientation and training of the Federal work force, feedback received by the Office of Incentive Systems, both from agency personnel and through the Commission's personnel management evaluation reports, indicated that more needed to be done.

For example, a study conducted by a cabinet-level agency showed that supervisors ranked information on the incentive awards program tenth in a list of 38 "needs." This finding is not surprising in light of the fact that 23% of agencies that responded to a survey made by the Office of Incentive Systems indicated they conduct no incentive awards training, and only 63% include incentive awards in supervisory courses and 57% in training or orientation for managers and executives.

These factors, plus the fact that the vast majority of incentive awards program administrators have other duties and responsibilities, led to the decision that more needed to be done by the Commission to assist agencies with their incentive awards training responsibilities.

A key audience—the supervisor. Although a successful awards program requires top management support, supervisory involvement, and employee participation, we felt that first-level supervisors were the key audience, and directed our initial efforts to meet their needs.

The first product was a pamphlet, "A Supervisor's (15-minute) Guide to the Federal Incentive Awards Program." Almost 150,000 copies of the first edition were ordered by agencies. Copies of a reprint are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, at 45¢ per copy. The guide currently is used by a number of agencies as a handout in supervisory training courses, but we strongly encourage agencies to provide every supervisor with a desk copy of the guide for ready reference in recognizing employee contributions beyond job responsibilities.

Phase two of our efforts was a supervisory training program consisting of vu-graph slides and accompanying narrative, pilot-tested both in Washington and in the field by CSC and a number of other Federal agencies.

The completed package will consist of eighty 35mm slides and an accompanying tape narrative. Entitled "Incentive Awards—a Positive Force in Personnel Administration," the package will include an instructor's guide, handouts, case studies, and group exercises. We anticipate that this presentation will become an established segment of the mandatory 40-hour basic supervisory training course since it will add a practical dimension to the coverage given to employee motivation. Preliminary discussion with GSA's National Audiovisual Center indicates that the supervisory slide-tape package can be made available through the Center at a cost of approximately $15 a copy.

More audio-visual training packages planned. Currently under development is another audio-visual package with material directed to managers and executives. The approach will be similar to that prepared for supervisors—an initial briefing-type pamphlet, followed by development of a 12-15 minute, 35mm slide-tape presentation. The outline for these materials has been developed, and agencies and Commission offices with executive training and development responsibilities will be consulted as work progresses. Another project, longer range, is an audio-visual unit for suggestion evaluators.

We feel that such audio-visual presentations have distinct advantages—they can be self-administered, or they can be presented by either professional trainers or persons with little or no training experience. Because the training is developed on a national level, all Federal personnel receive the benefit of the same information. (This should have long-range payoff through the application of more uniform standards throughout the Federal Government for recognizing employee contributions beyond job responsibilities.) In addition, audio-visual presentations can be made either in their entirety, or they may be presented in part, and interrupted to insert information that deals specifically with the organization's own awards program.

A further training development we foresee is the possibility of including audio-visual and other materials on incentive awards among independent study courses offered by the Commission's recently opened National Independent Study Center in Denver, Colo.

There is no doubt that an effectively administered and supported incentive awards program can make a substantial contribution to cost reduction, increased productivity, and achievement of Federal and agency goals and objectives. But Government agencies cannot realize fully the benefits such a program has to offer unless all persons involved understand how it functions and appreciate the potential it has to offer for greater achievement. This understanding and appreciation can be achieved through effective, wide-scale training and development at all levels of the Federal work force. We look forward to working with agencies to meet their needs.

—Edith A. Stringer

real or imaginary?

BIG GOVERNMENT

by Gary Hart
United States Senator

IT IS TIME to come to grips with what is popularly called "Big Government." It is certainly no secret that public officials have detected rising public disillusionment with big government. Big government, the "mess" in Washington, and the "Washington establishment" have become major themes of presidential candidates. I decided to start at ground zero and appraise just what has happened to big government over the last 10 or 20 years.

The Federal bureaucracy is the element of big government most frequently the topic of cocktail party abuse and campaign rhetoric. It is widely assumed to grow at an alarming rate and expand to control every aspect of our lives. I have seen figures, as you probably have, showing agencies of government being constantly created, but virtually never being abolished. So I decided to begin my inquiry into big government with a close look at the size and shape of the Federal bureaucracy.

The Myth and the Reality

The bureaucracy is, of course, people—Federal employees. In 1974, the Federal Government employed about 5 million persons. But, surprisingly to me, that was almost exactly the same number of Federal employees on the payroll 13 years earlier, back in the year 1961.

Not only has a huge expansion in Federal employment not occurred, a significant number of important Government agencies are

noticeably smaller. For example, three major agencies are smaller now than they were in 1961—the Department of Defense, the Department of State, and the Agency for International Development.

Another three important agencies were smaller in 1975 than they were in 1970. These are the Department of the Interior, the Department of Agriculture, and the Postal Service.

Thus, the critics point out that new agencies are created and others grow. But they omit the important fact that agencies are also cut back.

One statistically sound way to measure the size of the bureaucracy is to compare it, year by year, with the population. This tells how many of each 1,000 citizens are now working for the Government. In 1950—that is 26 years ago—13 out of every 1,000 persons were civilian Government employees. In 1955, 14 out of every 1,000 citizens were Federal employees. Jumping 20 years later—to 1975—we discover that the statistic is exactly the same: 14 out of every 1,000 citizens are civilian employees.

Even though the size of the bureaucracy has not grown out of control, it seems possible that pay for Federal employees was eating up the budget. In short, they are being paid too much. That idea, unfortunately, is no more valid than the myth of the constantly growing bureaucracy. In 1950, the payroll amounted to 16 percent of the Federal budget. In 1960 it was 14 percent of the Federal spending. Last year it amounted to 13 percent of Federal spending.

But even if it is not growing, the idea of a "Federal bureaucracy" is still a vague term. It doesn't have real and precise meaning. So let's look at what our Federal employees actually do.

As I mentioned, last year about 5 million persons worked for the Federal Government on a full-time basis. What did they do? First, the overwhelming majority—64 percent to be exact—worked in just one huge agency: the Department of Defense. So most of the famous "big government bureaucracy" turns out in reality to be our national security forces. About two-thirds of these bureaucrats are in uniform and one-third are civilians. So that takes care of 3.2

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million of our 5 million Federal employees. What about the rest?

The next largest agency—and the only other real giant of the bureaucracy—is the U.S. Postal Service with about 700,000 employees. This is no real surprise either, since we know that delivering the mail is a labor-intensive business.

The Postal Service is three times larger than any other agency except Defense. So all other agencies seem small by comparison. HEW—the welfare giant—has 139,000 employees and Treasury, a total of 126,000.

Some agencies with a big job are remarkably small. The Arms Control and Disarmament Agency, for example, has just 179 employees. It is outnumbered nearly three-to-one by the American Battle Monuments Commission.

Perhaps that cuts the bureaucracy down to size and gives us a little feel for what Federal employees really do. Most are involved in defense. A large number deliver the mail. And just over 1 million perform all the other functions of the Federal Government for 220 million fellow citizens.

I'm sure some of you are trying to remember those figures that showed that if things kept up, soon we all would be working for the government. There have been areas where government employment has grown rapidly and substantially. But not at the Federal level.

State and Local Picture

The startling growth in government has been at the State and local level. Let me give you some examples. In 1960, there were about 5.5 million State and local government employees. By 1975, the figure had more than doubled to 11.7 million employees. That is where the growth has occurred—not in distant Washington, but in the governments closest to the people. Let me give you another example.

In 1960, the Federal Government employed 3.3 percent of the work force. In 1975, that figure declined to 3.1 percent of the work force. State and local government, on the other hand, presented a vastly different picture. In 1960, 7.7 percent of all workers were employed by State and local government. By 1975, this grew to 12.6 percent of the work force.

This should clearly illustrate the trend: the so-called bureaucracy has grown at the State and local level—and not at the Federal level. Again, bureaucracy is a vague concept, so we ought to take a quick look at what these State and local employees are actually doing.

Most of the growth has occurred, and most of the people actually work, in a single area: our local schools. Of the 11.7 million State and local employees, nearly half of them work as teachers or in other support roles in our educational system.

This makes sense. Since 1960, this country has made an enormous commitment to expand and improve our educational system. Elementary schools, junior colleges, and colleges sprang up all over this country, responding to the baby boom and the importance we placed on education in an increasingly technological society.

The remaining State and local employees perform a wide variety of tasks that defy neat categorization. However, just about 1 million are police and about the same number are firemen. A much smaller number are employed in the delivery of welfare and similar social services.

So slicing through all the rhetoric about bureaucracy, we find some simple and down-to-earth facts that reflect a clear national consensus. At the Federal level the largest so-called "bureaucracy" is our national defense effort, reflecting both the importance and the labor-intensive nature of national security. On the State and local level, our educational system—expanding rapidly for about 15 years—accounts for much of the higher public employment.

Unmasking Another "Villain"

Bureaucracy, however, is only one popular villain in the attack on big government. Government spending is an equally frequent target of criticism. And you all have heard how it's getting out of hand. So it seems only reasonable to take a hard look at Government spending.

But before we delve into government spending, a few notes of caution. Government spending figures are the most difficult to interpret and the most frequently distorted. This happens for three reasons: First, the numbers are so large they tend to lose all meaning. Second, inflation, a worldwide phenomenon, alters the value of a dollar, so that the same Government purchase made 10 years ago will appear smaller than an identical purchase made today. Because of inflation, for example, a $170 million Government program in 1975 is exactly the same size as a $100 million program in 1967. Third, both our economy and our population are growing. So in making an honest examination of Government spending, we have to keep all these factors in proportion or we will end up with false comparisons that sound good in speeches but do not reflect reality.

With those conditions in mind, let's address the question: How much has Government spending really grown? The answer is again surprising: "A little but certainly not a lot."

To compensate for both infla-

tion and economic growth, one valid measure of Government spending is a comparison between public expenditures and the gross national product.

For example, in 1952, the Federal budget amounted to 19 percent of the gross national product. That means that Government accounted for nearly one-fifth of all goods and services in the country. In 1973, the percentage remained just about the same: the Government budget amounted to 20.9 percent of the gross national product. In other words, in that 21-year period the portion of the gross national product accounted for by the Federal Government changed little.

Let me make another contrast to show how inflation and a growing economy can distort the statistics. In 1961, the Federal budget amounted to 19.6 percent of the gross national product. Ten years later it amounted to virtually the exact same proportion: 20.9 percent of the gross national product. That means that compared to the *size* of our economy, Government spending did not change.

But if you want to distort the figures, you don't adjust for inflation or economic growth. You would then point out that in 1961, the Federal budget amounted to a paltry $149 billion. In 10 years it leaped to an astounding $220 billion. That sounds impressive but creates a false impression, for in fact Government spending has moved along, in lock step, with inflation and economic growth. It has not taken a significantly larger share, nor a notably smaller share either.

A final note on Government spending. If you compare the percentages year by year, you will discover quite a lot of fluctuation. The Government's share of the GNP rises to 20 percent or a little higher during wars and during recessions. It drops off to about 16 or 17 percent when the economy is booming in peacetime.

But the important point is this: there has been no major change in the *proportion* of our economic output consumed or distributed by the Federal Government. That is contrary to those who would like to use Federal spending as a whipping boy.

Like numbers of employees, these gross Federal budget figures don't have much meaning by themselves, because the billion dollar figures are so mind boggling. But we can bring the Federal budget down to earth, too, just as we did the Federal bureaucracy.

In Fiscal Year 1976, the Federal budget totals about $374 billion, a figure so large as to lack real meaning. So let's slice up the Federal pie to see who gets what.

Although the Department of Defense employs 64 percent of the Federal work force, it accounts for only about one-quarter of the Federal budget. Again inflation and economic growth can be deceiving. Because while the dollar totals for defense have climbed steadily year by year, these numbers conceal the fact that defense has gotten a progressively smaller slice of the Federal pie—largely due to the so-called "entitlement" programs.

A package of two major social programs directed at a single constituency accounts for by far the biggest share of the Federal budget. The constituency is the elderly, and the programs—social security and medicare—will equal more than $108 billion.

The nation's financial commitment to the elderly does dwarf all other Federal social welfare programs. The assistance provided to the elderly is five times that provided other welfare programs added together.

Painting with a broad brush, the Federal share of the nation's production has remained about the same. But Federal spending priorities have shifted, from defense into income security and medical assistance for the elderly.

A Matter of Tax

We have now examined two of the villains of big government—bureaucracy and Federal spending—let us now turn from the bark of big government to the bite: Federal tax collections.

Is there a person alive who does not believe that the Federal Government is taking a bigger chunk each year of his paycheck? That leads us to a close look at the Federal tax burden, and once again we will find some surprising answers.

In 1951, the Federal Government collected in taxes about 20 cents of every dollar of goods and services produced in the United States. One decade later the Federal Government was still collecting 20 cents for every dollar of goods and services. Two decades later—in 1971—the Federal Government took the same 20 cents and not until 1973 did the Federal share increase to just over 21 cents. Thus, in broad terms, the Federal tax burden has not changed significantly in 25 years. These figures count all Federal tax collections including social security, income taxes, and corporate taxes. But lumping these taxes together blurs the fact that significant changes have occurred in the tax burden.

Two taxes paid by individuals have indeed increased, both in absolute and relative terms. These are income taxes and social security or payroll taxes. Despite wailing by some in business, the corporate tax burden has declined steadily since 1969. Even though the legal corporate tax rate has remained cons-

tant at 48 percent, so many tax "incentives," credits, and other tax breaks have been enacted that the "real" or effective corporate tax rate is now down to about 35 percent. On the other hand, inflation has pushed individuals into higher tax brackets, even though their purchasing power has remained the same.

At this point let me stop and sum up. So far I have been describing the trends in the Federal Government that can be statistically verified. These facts show that the three popular villains of big government are largely mythical. The Federal bureaucracy is not an expanding octopus. On the contrary, it has remained about the same size. Federal spending has grown in proportion with the economy and inflation—maintaining a roughly constant share of our output of goods and services. The overall Federal tax burden also has not grown, but it has shifted from business to individuals.

I have dwelled so long on these statistics for two purposes: First, to try to give you a more direct feel for the dimensions of that vague entity called the Federal Government; second, I believe we have a problem with big government. But, it is *not* just the size of the Government bureaucracy. It is *not* uncontrolled increases in Government spending. It is *not* enormous increases in the Federal tax burden.

The Real Problem With "Big Government"

Once the erroneous charges against big government are put in perspective, we can begin to zero in on what is left. We definitely have a problem with big government, but it is not simply a problem of size or spending or taxes.

The problem of big government

is less tangible but much more important. And it extends from Washington into every community and home in this nation.

The central problem of big government springs from our attitudes and expectations. The problem of big government is big promises that cannot be backed up by performance. The problem of big government is inflated expectations that generate disillusionment rather than hope and progress. The problem of big government is the myth that it can solve every problem and meet every challenge. The problem of big government, frankly, is the demand placed upon it by every interest group in our society.

There are two corrosive results of a generation of false promises, increased demands, and inflated expectations. The first cost is the growing disillusionment and loss of confidence in our government. It results from performance falling short of expectations. But let me emphasize, the *expectations* are as faulty as the performance—and performance is the customary scapegoat. The second cost affects every citizen. When problems are shipped wholesale to Washington for intended solution, it strips all of us not only of the responsibility of problemsolving but also the rewards.

When problems are exiled to Washington for solution, people become clients of government programs rather than sovereign citizens to whom government must be accountable. The result of this process over the years is that people are stereotyped and stripped of humanity to fit into cold definitions of program categories. Real people become "recipients," consumers, clients of health care delivery systems. What we need are citizens and human beings.

Let me offer some illustrations of how we can begin to bring inflated expectations down to earth:

—This government was established to *promote* prosperity. No government can *guarantee* prosperity.

—This government can encourage the creation of jobs. It cannot guarantee everyone a job of his choice.

—Government can and must try to minimize inflation. But no government can terminate a worldwide problem by act of law.

—The Federal Government must insure and promote the legal rights of minorities. But in the long haul, subtle human discrimination will be ended by citizens of understanding and compassion who grow beyond narrow prejudice.

This nation must grow beyond the arrogant and ill-considered promises that government could "whip" inflation, immediately win a "war on poverty," or guarantee world peace.

Life on the Last Frontier

Does that mean that we give up on these problems and goals? Absolutely not. I am saying that this country and particularly the Federal Government must learn to

live within limits. The days of the unlimited frontier are over. We are up against the last frontier and it is ourselves.

Learning to live within limits is the essential lesson for a strong nation growing up. We have discovered that our natural resources are finite. Finite resources mean that we must begin to develop an economic program that is no longer premised on unlimited growth or endless consumption. For the three-fourths of us who are wasteful consumers, sacrifices, self-denial, and restraint will be necessary.

Learning to live within limits means beginning the long job of reshaping our economy to emphasize the quality of life over the quantity of consumption.

Learning to live within limits means seeking a new balance of shared responsibility between the citizen and his government. We need to share not only revenue but responsibility. We have to begin to ask: If I don't have what I want, is something wrong with our economic policy in Washington or are my expectations and values simply excessive? Too often a little of both is true.

Learning to live within limits means admitting that some kinds of problems will probably be solved most effectively by citizens and groups of citizens. A neighborhood working together without a dime of Federal money might be more effective in preventing crime than another billion dollar program.

Let us raise our spirits but limit our expectations to a reasonable level. There is much work to be done for a nation with the strength and patience to understand that to learn to live within limits is not to give up. The price of progress has not increased for those who sustain their commitment to our nation's goals. CSJ

INTERGOVERNMENTAL PERSPECTIVES

Perhaps the most volatile issue in public sector management today is labor relations. The prevention of labor-management unrest and the end of work stoppages are matters of increasing public concern, so it is not surprising that improvement of labor-management relations has become a top priority of many jurisdictions and a target of IPA assistance.

Between FY 1972 and FY 1975, more than 100 IPA grants were awarded for projects with an emphasis on labor relations. Approximately 91 percent of these provided training to executive and legislative officials of State and local governments in collective bargaining, grievance handling, and related subjects.

Other projects were designed to help jurisdictions develop an institutional capacity to deal with continuing activities in the bargaining environment. For example, projects that were successfully adopted and continued after IPA funds terminated include the establishment of a labor relations office for the Nebraska State government, development and maintenance of a supervisors' manual for grievance handling in Hartford, Conn., and establishment of a labor relations unit in Dallas, Tex.

Innovative Approaches

In recent years, some jurisdictions have devised new approaches to using IPA funds in labor relations projects. The most noteworthy are a comprehensive, State-wide approach in California; a cooperative union-management approach by three local governments in California, Ohio, and Florida; a regional approach in the midwest; and a national approach coordinated by the Labor-Management Relations Service.

State-wide project: The State of California is nearing completion of a one-year project to improve the labor relations capabilities of its State and local agencies. This two-part effort administered by the California Agriculture and Services Agency involves development of both information services and training in labor relations.

First, the project will enable the University of California to expand its library and reference services. The Public Sector Information Center at Berkeley will enlarge its reference library and, in response to two readership surveys, will add new features to its quarterly *California Public Employee Relations Journal.* Also, a new Public Sector Collective Bargaining Information Center will be set up at the UCLA Institute of Industrial Relations to maintain a salary and employee benefits analysis service, and to collect and disseminate information on labor relations.

Second, the project will begin developing a comprehensive training program for management and employees and will introduce "training of trainers"

programs to insure effective State-wide training delivery. The first-year target is 15,000 trainees.

This project is unique in that it is the first IPA-funded, comprehensive effort to educate public workers in labor relations on a State-wide basis. According to Rose Elizabeth Bird, Secretary of the Agriculture and Services Agency, the project is "top priority" and "constitutes a major effort . . . to improve the quality and sophistication of labor relations in California's public sector."

Cooperative projects: In order for labor union representatives to participate in IPA training projects, they must be employees of a State or local government and the subject of the training must be related to an improvement in employee performance and of direct benefit to a State or local government. Within this limitation, three local jurisdictions have pioneered in running cooperative union-management training projects with IPA assistance.

The first took place last year, when the city of Miami Beach, Fla., offered training in basic communications, leadership, and human relations skills to 66 of its employees—34 union stewards from the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME) and 32 first-line supervisors.

Also last year, the city of Toledo, Ohio, with IPA-funded assistance from the State Department of Administrative Services, staged training for approximately 100 managers, mediation representatives, and officials and stewards from AFSCME and the Teamsters. This training covered grievance handling and the union's agreements with the city. Due to joint planning from the outset and the rapport engendered by reverse role-playing during the training itself, the Toledo sessions were perhaps surprisingly harmonious; both supervisors and stewards recommended continuing them on a monthly basis in order to maintain the initial feeling of goodwill and to handle problems before they had escalated.

The third and most recent jurisdiction to offer cooperative union-management training is Santa Clara County, Calif., which in January received an IPA grant to design and implement a supervisory skills and contract administration training program that will be transportable to other public agencies. This project calls for joint supervisor/steward training of approximately 1,750 county employees in communication skills, human relations, and labor relations. It aims to reduce both the need for grievance filing and the level at which problemsolving occurs. The county's largest employee organization, Local 715, Service Employees International Union, is an active project participant—an administrator selected by the county and a coordinator jointly selected with Local 715 will manage the project.

Regional project: The Midwest Center for Public Sector Labor Relations, located at Indiana University, is the first such information clearinghouse to operate on a regional basis. Established with IPA assistance last year, the Center publishes a newsletter and practitioners' guides on labor relations topics and responds to specific inquiries from jurisdictions in its 6-State service area. It also is setting up a comprehensive public employment labor relations library in cooperation with Indiana University.

A few months ago, the Center was one of 15 organizations selected to participate in the Urban Management Curriculum Project being funded by the Department of Housing and Urban Development and conducted by the National Training and Development Service. The Center will develop a curriculum covering legislative aspects of collective bargaining for public employees.

National project: The Labor-Management Relations Service (LMRS) has conducted three Executive-Level Internship Training Programs for 39 State and local government officials in the last five years. The interns undergo intensive on-the-job training for up to 110 days each, under the supervision and guidance of experienced labor relations professionals. They are then expected to return to their home jurisdictions with sufficient knowledge to institute or help administer a labor relations program.

A 1975 survey of the 28 who were trained in 1972-73 showed that the interns deemed the program invaluable, and that most had been promoted and given increased labor relations responsibilities since returning to their home jurisdictions. The newest group of 24 interns will be the first to include school district administrators in a program that will be jointly conducted by LMRS and the American Association of School Administrators/National Academy for School Executives.

IPA assistance in the field of labor relations is not confined to grants. As part of its technical assistance program, U.S. Civil Service Commission regional staff regularly assist State and local governments in labor relations improvement projects. A Commission newsletter, "Labor-Management Relations Issues in State and Local Governments," and a Commission training course, "Collective Bargaining for Public Managers (State and Local)," are also designed to assist in this effort.

In short, the IPA can be a useful tool to help State and local governments develop expertise in public sector labor relations.

—Susan Tejada

APPEALS DIGEST

Discrimination Complaints

Descrimination found on basis other than that alleged

Complainant alleged discrimination on account of national origin (Italian). Following an agency disposition of no discrimination, complainant received a hearing. At the hearing the selecting official admitted that, due to "underrepresentation of minorities and females" he had consciously selected a female to improve female representation within the organization. He further acknowledged that, had complainant been a female, complainant would have been the one selected.

The Complaints Examiner found no discrimination on account of national origin, but recommended a finding of discrimination on account of sex. The agency "disavowed" that portion of the recommended decision that considered sex discrimination, and adopted a finding of no discrimination on account of national origin.

The Appeals Review Board, on appeal, reversed the agency. The Board found that the complainant was "significantly" better qualified than the female selected, and upon further review concluded that complainant had clearly been discriminated against because of his sex. The Board rejected the agency's contention that the Complaints Examiner acted outside the limits of his authority by finding sex discrimination rather than remanding the matter to the agency for "appropriate handling." (Decision No. RB071360297.)

Mandatory retirement

The complainant appealed to the Appeals Review Board from the rejection by his agency of his age discrimination complaint. His agency had its own statutory retirement system that called for mandatory retirement of all covered employees at age sixty. He contended that this provision was rendered illegal and discriminatory by the subsequently passed Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 and by Public Law 93-259, which extended the Act's coverage to include Federal employees.

The ARB held that the agency retirement act was not superseded by the newer laws. It noted that when a general statute is enacted after a specific statute, the specific law remains in effect unless it is expressly repealed. In the instant case, the Board noted, the specific statute was the agency act providing for mandatory retirement. The Age Discrimination Act, a general law, while prohibiting such discrimination, did not expressly repeal the agency act. Accordingly, the Board found the rejection proper and affirmed the agency decision. (Decision No. RB071360686.)

Adverse Action

Criminal conduct

Appellant was removed from his position based on a criminal conviction for which a suspended sentence had been imposed. Subsequently appellant received a full and unconditional pardon from the Governor of his State. Appellant argued that the pardon negated the original conviction, thus leaving nothing to support the charge.

The Federal Employee Appeals Authority field office sustained the removal. Citing a number of supporting court cases, the field office found that a State pardon, just as any other act of a different sovereign, is not normally binding on the Federal Government. It was, accordingly, held not to be an abuse of discretion for a Federal agency to base a removal action on a conviction that is no longer of record when the act of removing it from the record was a State act, i.e., the above-cited pardon.

A distinction was made as to circumstances under which a pardon might or might not properly be

disregarded—namely, whether the pardon served to remedy a miscarriage of justice or whether, as in the instant case, it merely served as a remission of guilt. In view of the applicability of the latter circumstance, it was determined that the agency action of removal should be sustained. (Decision No. BN752B60053.)

Employee answer

The appellant appealed to the Federal Employee Appeals Authority contesting his removal from the agency for alleged falsification of a doctor's return to work statement. Notice of proposed removal informed the appellant of his right to answer to a certain individual. The appellant submitted a written answer one day late and directed it to the wrong individual. Agency officials refused to consider the written answer even though it was received, by the deciding official, approximately three weeks before the effective date of the action and approximately five days before the decision letter was delivered to the appellant.

On appeal to the Federal Employee Appeals Authority, the field office held that, absent a showing that there was a compelling reason for the agency to expedite the adverse action, the agency's refusal to consider the appellant's answer denied the appellant fundamental due process rights and rendered the adverse action procedurally defective. (Decision No. DE752B60070.)

Agency request to reopen

By decision dated November 14, 1975, the employee's removal was reversed by the Federal Employee Appeals Authority on procedural grounds. As corrective action, the appeals officer recommended that the employee be retroactively restored. On December 17, the agency requested reopening by the Appeals Review Board. On December 23, the ARB received correspondence from the agency advising that on December 19 it had placed the employee in a pay status retroactive to the date of the FEAA decision and in an administrative leave status effective December 19.

The ARB noted that the agency had not complied with the requirement of section 772.310 of the civil service regulations (5 CFR 772.310) that agency requests for reopening be accompanied by evidence of temporary or conditional compliance with the appeals officer's recommended corrective action; further, that although correspondence from the agency indicated it had attempted to satisfy the additional requirement that such compliance with the appeals officer's recommended corrective action be reported within 30 days after receipt of the decision, the requirement was not met. For those reasons, the ARB denied the agency's request. (Decision No. RB752B60242 (DE752B60026).)

Retirement

Service credit

Appellant appealed a decision of the Bureau of Retirement, Insurance, and Occupational Health wherein it had applied the standard practice of disregarding the 31st day of a month when computing retirement service credit. On appeal, the Appeals Review Board upheld the Bureau, stating that the computation was made pursuant to 5 CFR 831.701, and that it is consistent with long-standing Comptroller General decisions. ARB noted that appellant was not deprived of credit for such days since the Bureau's computation is based on a 360-day year

consisting of twelve thirty-day months, rather than a 365-day year.

In its finding, ARB rejected appellant's contention that the Bureau was bound by the Service Computation Date that had been incorrectly computed by his agency when he was hired. (Decision No. RB083160103.)

Supplemental annuity

The Bureau of Retirement, Insurance, and Occupational Health ruled that the appellant was not qualified for a supplemental annuity based on her temporary Federal service following her retirement. The Bureau's determination was based on (1) its finding that the appellant's retirement had been involuntary and (2) the provision of 5 U.S.C. 8344(a) that a supplemental annuity cannot be granted to an annuitant whose initial retirement was based on an involuntary separation.

On appeal to the Appeals Review Board, the appellant pointed out that her retirement had been effected at her own request, following notification by her agency that her position would be abolished. She therefore contended that her retirement had been voluntary. The Board noted, however, that the appellant, at the time of retirement, did not meet the minimum age requirement for a voluntary (i.e., optional) retirement, and that the appellant instead had qualified for a discontinued service annuity based on the agency's decision to abolish her job. Thus the Board found that the appellant's retirement had been involuntary within the meaning of applicable law and regulations, and it affirmed the Bureau's determination. (Decision No. RB083160122.)

—Paul D. Mahoney

PERSONNEL POLICIES and STANDARDS

Flexitime

During the past three years a growing number of Federal agencies have introduced flexible work hours (flexitime). The rapidly expanding use of this time management concept is bringing about major changes in the way agencies schedule employee work time.

Since flexible work hours were first implemented by the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Albuquerque, N. Mex., in late 1972 and by the Social Security Administration headquarters in Baltimore, Md., during the spring of 1973, it has been adopted by more than 40 organizational elements in various Federal agencies. Latest estimates indicate that between 35,000-40,000 Federal workers are currently involved in flexitime programs.

The flexitime system divides the workday into core hours and flexible hours. All employees must be at work during the designated core hours, but are offered some degree of choice in selecting arrival and departure times within the established flexible hour bands. The amount of choice permitted depends upon the needs of the organization. Because of premium pay requirements, all programs are limited to an 8-hour day and 40-hour week.

Reports are now being received from organizations that have completed one or more years under a flexitime program, and they are extremely favorable. Benefits noted include higher productivity, increased employee morale, relief of traffic congestion, and a virtual elimination of tardiness. The problems incurred have been minor and primarily the result of inadequate planning. In each case an appropriate modification eliminated the problem. No Federal organization to date has discontinued its flexitime program.

Legislation introduced in the Congress at the request of the Civil Service Commission would modify the premium pay provisions of the law to allow for a three-year test of many forms of alternatives to traditional work scheduling. Experiments would be conducted in selected Federal agencies. Among the alternatives to be tested would be more sophisticated forms of flexible scheduling (where employees may vary the number of hours each workday), as well as

compressed work schedules (a workweek of four 10-hour days). This legislation (H.R. 9043) passed the House on May 6, 1976, and is awaiting action in the Senate.

Training in FES

During March, April, and May, 27 3-day training courses in the Factor Evaluation System were held throughout the country for the purpose of insuring that the Standards Division of the Commission's Bureau of Policies and Standards would be provided with the best possible review of its eight initial draft standards developed under the new FES. Effective analysis and reasoned comments on these first eight will serve as a basis for making changes that may be needed before the standards are issued for mandatory use, and will also provide a guide for future refinements of the FES.

The training package was developed by a joint Bureau of Training/Bureau of Policies and Standards Task Force. The task force produced a professionally designed and technically sound training course complete with lesson plans, student workbooks, and hand-outs. A receptive agency attitude had been developed by the regional office staffs prior to the conduct of training. Subsequently, nearly 800 classifiers, designated by their agencies to review and comment on the first eight draft FES classification standards, were provided training in the new system.

Training sessions were held in ten regional office cities, eight regional satellite locations, and in Washington, D.C. CSC instructors included 12 central office and 20 regional office personnel.

The Commission has had highly favorable comments about the quality and value of the training courses. Consensus of the participants was that the 3-day course was appropriate in length and depth, very well designed, and definitely worth the time required for attendance.

Phase II of the training, begun in July, provides training for the on-going system by instructing agency classifiers in the use of the FES in their work. The Bureau of Training and the Regional Training Centers will have the responsibility for this training and will offer it on a reimbursable basis.

Performance Evaluation and Rating

The Bureau of Policies and Standards has prepared an extensive proposed revision of FPM Chapter 430, Performance Evaluation and Rating, which has been sent to agencies and unions for their comments. The chapter has been organized into two main parts, separating policy and guidance material. The informational and guidance material is much more comprehensive than any provided before.

The body of the chapter contains the requirements based on chapter 43 of title 5, U.S. Code, and part 430 of the Commission's regulations; related requirements based on other provisions of law, Executive order, regulation, or Commission policy; new material on the relationship of performance evaluation to other personnel decisions; and performance rating appeals rights and procedures. Although some policy changes are proposed, most of the additional material in the body of the chapter reflects previous interpretations of policy that had not been incorporated in the chapter.

All guidance material for discretionary use by agencies is placed in an expanded Appendix A, "Guide to Improving Performance Evaluation." The guide provides state-of-the-art information presented from a practical viewpoint. It involves a shift in emphasis from mechanisms to opportunities for meaningful dialogue between supervisor and employee.

Appendix A stresses employee participation in the evaluation process, training of supervisors, and the importance of feedback to and from employees. More up-to-date guidance is provided on techniques for appraising performance and for guarding against bias in appraisals. The emphasis is on giving guidance to agencies to stimulate and support their efforts to design and manage their programs.

—Thomas F. Cowley and Sandra J. Blake

videotape/film program:

WORKING FOR THE UNITED STATES

by James A. Everett
Bureau of Training
U.S. Civil Service Commission

THE LARGEST single civilian training program in the Federal Government, at least in terms of numbers of participants, is employee orientation. And now a unique new orientation program—on videotape, videocassette, or film—is being made available to all Government agencies.

Every new employee, regardless of grade level or occupational series, receives some form of orientation. The phrase "some form," moreover, covers a multitude of variations. Agencies and local offices develop and conduct their own programs using a variety of materials, methods, and delivery systems. Some conduct formal assembled sessions; most have informal question and answer sessions conducted by personnel specialists; nearly all hand out packages of CSC pamphlets and brochures, and present a host of materials about the agency and its particular niche in the Federal establishment. Understandably, program content varies widely.

But while there are differences, there are similarities too. All agencies want their new employees to feel good about coming to work for the Federal Government and for their organization. All agencies want employees to be aware of major personnel programs, policies, rights, and responsibilities. And employees must be given certain basic information to help them

make key personal decisions early in their employment, such as whether to participate in health and life insurance programs.

Exploiting a Common Core

The Civil Service Commission recognized this "common core" of intent—if not execution—as an opportunity to accomplish several objectives simultaneously:

☐ Respond to a need identified by several agencies for a standardized informational package to help agencies conduct orientation more uniformly, effectively, and efficiently.

☐ Promote, through practical demonstration, the use of an alternative method to traditional instruction, which is labor-intensive in the sense that instructors must repeatedly cover essentially the same material, often in an uneconomical one-on-one or small-group setting.

☐ Through the use of audio-visual and print media, ensure timeliness of orientations by eliminating the need to "wait until we have enough to fill a class."

☐ Using imaginative techniques of television videotape technology, make technical orientation material easier to grasp and more enjoyable.

☐ Demonstrate what can be done on an even larger scale in other training courses and programs.

The Commission believes the resulting program will meet the needs of two important types of customers: personnel and training directors and specialists who are looking for ways to make employee orientation more effective, timely, and interesting; and managers who are looking for ways to make instruction less labor-intensive and more efficient, with more predictable results.

Program Content

A content outline is shown in the table. Running time shown for each of the five tapes is approximate.

Each program is designed to appeal to employees under both the General Schedule and Wage Systems. Where there are essential differences, they are covered briefly. The level of content is designed to be relevant and comprehensible to people in all grade levels and all job series within the two preliminary pay systems. This was not easy, and —very possibly—not

WORKING FOR THE UNITED STATES

Contents

Tape No.

1. Working for the United States (25 minutes)
   - —Executive branch and its relation to other branches
   - —Role of the Federal employee in the political system
   - —Federal employees
     - —Who they are
     - —Where they work
     - —What they do
   - —Features of Federal employment
2. You and the Merit System (17 minutes)
   - —Merit principles
   - —Merit system operation
   - —Probationary period
   - —Career status
   - —Pay systems
   - —Classification systems
   - —Equal employment opportunity
3. The Road Ahead (15 minutes)
   - —Performance
   - —Within-grade increases
   - —Incentive awards
   - —Training and development
   - —Upward mobility
   - —Merit promotion
4. Your Rights and Responsibilities (15 minutes)
   - —Conduct
   - —Grievances
   - —EEO complaints
   - —Adverse actions
   - —Reductions in force (RIFs)
   - —Privacy
   - —Political activity
   - —Unions
   - —Safety
5. Benefits You Earn (17 minutes)
   - —Health insurance
   - —Life insurance
   - —Injury compensation
   - —Leave
   - —Retirement

CIVIL SERVICE goes "Hollywood" as the story of "Working for the United States" is turned into film and videotape presentations for employee orientation purposes. TOP LEFT: the acting company rehearses a scene from the script. TOP CENTER: graphics are prepared. BOTTOM CENTER: technicians in the control room monitor the action. RIGHT: lights...camera...action. *(Photos courtesy of Louisville Productions, a division of WHAS, INC., Louisville, Ky.)*

100 percent successful. But it was a goal worth working toward, and the problem is not too different from the one CSC often faces in trying to meet the common-core training needs of employees in varied organizations.

The tapes intentionally do not go into great depth. They are intended to be introductory materials, to acquaint the viewers with other available material (usually printed) and to motivate them to read it. For example, one tape makes the point that the employee must take action within time limits to select a health insurance plan, and only shows the way to further help in making a selection. The objective is to stimulate viewers to take individual action—not to tell them all they need to know about the different plans.

In some content areas, a subject is introduced only briefly, with the expectation that information peculiar to each agency will be supplied to round out the topic. All five tapes were designed with that kind of flexibility in mind. A few agencies are known to be developing their own videotaped orientation programs to dovetail with CSC's.

Methods of Program Conduct

An instructor guide, or user's manual, will be provided to supplement the tapes. The guide will include pages that can be duplicated locally for use as handouts and job aids. A content outline of each tape will be provided to minimize the need for taking notes.

The most timely method of conducting the program is to use the videocassettes and handout packages for each new employee, or small group of employees, very shortly after they report for duty. Because the videocassette player is simple to operate, the orientation instructor does not need to be present during the entire presentation. The instructor can appear at the beginning of the session to get it started and again after each tape to answer questions, add agency flavor to the taped materials, and provide the participants with CSC and agency reading and review materials.

Probably no more than one or two tapes per session should be presented, with ample time allowed for review of printed materials and question and answer sessions.

Tapes are "modular" in that each tape is a complete entity and does not depend on material covered in any other tape. The general introduction to Federal employment tape ("Working for the United States") should be presented first, but after that, sequence is of no particular importance.

The programs are recorded on 2-inch broadcast-quality videotapes. Copies will be made available to users in the form of 16mm or 8mm films, 3/4" videocassettes, or any size reel-to-reel videotape.

Actual methods of using the tapes will necessarily depend on a number of variables: playback (film or video) equipment available; location of those being oriented; whether the office owns its own tapes or must borrow them; how long they can keep borrowed copies; and so on. The guidelines for using the materials are broad enough to take these conditions into account.

How Videotapes Were Developed

The taped portion of the program was developed on contract by the Commission. Working with a content outline developed in consultation with the Interagency Advisory Group's work group on employee orientation and communications, and armed with material from the Federal Personnel Manual, "Fed Facts" leaflets, and myriad other printed materials, the contractor's writer/director prepared a draft script of each tape.

Cognizant bureaus in CSC reviewed the draft scripts for technical accuracy. They were also reviewed for a "reality test" by a few selected agency personnel and training directors who had served in an advisory capacity from the outset.

The Commission's project coordinator had the role of serving as intermediary between the contractor, CSC bureaus, and the advisory agencies. Essentially that coordinator put together the final scripts, based on inputs from the many reviewers.

With the approved scripts, the contractor then prepared "approval dub" videotapes that were sent to Washington for final approval by CSC officials. It is characteristic of videotape technology that changes in the "master" tape can be made quickly, and—in most cases—inexpensively.

How/Where To Get Programs

Information on how to get review copies and purchase copies may be obtained from the following:

☐Field offices: CSC Regional Training Centers (ATTN: Director, Training Leadership).

☐Washington offices under major departments: departmental training officers.

☐Washington offices of independent agencies: Bureau of Training (ATTN: Office of Agency Assistance and Resource Coordination, phone 202/632-5653).

The Commission is hopeful that the new orientation tapes, "Working for the United States," will go a long way toward improving the start given new employees in Government. CSJ

PERSONNEL RESEARCH ROUNDUP

THE CASE FOR WRITTEN TESTS IN FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT

This is the second in a number of articles to appear in this column addressing some of the questions raised about the use of written tests. This article considers the question of why tests are used and points out some of the limitations as well as advantages of written tests.

History

It is interesting to note, especially in an era when written tests are under extreme criticism, that an impetus for the use of tests in the public sector was a desire to eliminate unfair employment practices, namely political favoritism and the spoils system. The Civil Service Act of 1883, commonly known as the Pendleton Act, provided for open competitive examinations: "such examinations shall be practical in their character, and so far as may be possible relate to those matters which will fairly test the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined."

The passage of this legislation created a need for methods of rating applicants on the basis of merit and fitness for the job. Very early those persons assigned the task of developing such procedures began to use written tests as the fairest method of evaluating candidates. With a written test all candidates would have the same opportunity to be rated on the same objective and job-related basis. As a result, selections would more likely be based on merit.

World Wars I and II provided an additional reason for the use of written tests for employee selection. Their use during the war years demonstrated that they could measure the abilities of large numbers of persons economically and with precision. Tests were, in fact, the only evaluation method for which accuracy was known.

For that reason, the passage of the Veterans' Preference Act in 1944 further increased reliance on written tests. In effect, it required that eligibles be ranked on the basis of points or scores and that selections be made from among the best qualified. This required a quantitative and accurate means of ranking candidates, a task for which tests were well suited.

To carry out the intent of these laws, subsequent Commission regulations have specifically directed adherence to merit principles and job-relatedness in examining to ensure selection from among the best qualified.

Thus from the beginning of examining in the civil service to the present time, fairness, economy, accuracy, and merit have been required by law and have been the principal reasons for the utilization of written tests.

Utilization of Written Tests in Examining

Written tests are not the sole means of examining. When they are used, they are only one part of the evaluation process. Other aspects include: physical requirements, experience, education or training, and suitability determinations. The decision as to which are required must be based on a job analysis. This is a systematic investigation of the knowledges, skills, abilities, and other worker characteristics (KSAOs) required to perform the job successfully.

The decision to use a written test is made when one or more of the following conditions exist:

1. The KSAOs required to successfully perform the job cannot be expected to have been demonstrated through other means, as the experience is not available without being employed on the job (example: claims examiner).

2. The knowledges and skills required can best be learned on the job over a period of time (example: apprentices).

3. The KSAOs can be demonstrated, but must be screened for level of proficiency (example: stenographers).

4. It is necessary to assess the KSAOs of a very large number of applicants for relatively few jobs (example: clerical jobs).

5. The critical nature of the job makes it essential that the KSAOs required be assessed with the maximum degree of accuracy (example: air traffic controllers).

Approximately 1,700,000 persons apply for Federal employment annually. Between 50% and 60% of these applicants take written tests. Of these, approximately 60% are for steno/typists, clerical, and professional and administrative entry (PACE) jobs. Approximately 50%-60% of applicants who take tests pass them. The percentage of applicants who are selected for jobs varies considerably among examina-

tions, but among the three major examinations cited above it has been less than 20% in the past year. For example, over 200,000 applicants competed for less than 15,000 PACE jobs in Fiscal Year 1975.

Basis for Accuracy of Written Tests

The fact that people differ is self-evident. People differ not only in such obvious traits as height, weight, and hair color, but also in many other less discernible qualities such as knowledge, abilities, skills, motivation, and temperament.

Measuring any characteristic of many people will result in a wide distribution of measures. If a large enough group of people are measured on a given characteristic, their scores will progress from the lowest to the highest, to such a degree that only 1% score at the low and high extremes; an additional 15% score higher and lower than the majority; and the majority, or about 68%, will score around the average. Thus 50% will fall above and 50% below average. The existence of these differences (variability) among individuals provides the basis for the use of tests in employment selection and for the application of statistical procedures to determine the degree of accuracy of the resulting scores.

Based on this "normal distribution" of scores, psychologists can calculate, within certain degrees of confidence, how likely it is that a given test score is a true measure of the individual's ability. For example, given a single score of 75 and certain statistical characteristics of the test, they may infer that the "true" score is actually between two limits, for example 70-80, 95% of the time. By the same token, they can establish in advance the degrees of confidence required in a test and develop the test to meet a specified degree of accuracy.

It is because there is considerable statistical understanding of written tests that they not only are the most accurate menas of measuring abilities, but are also generally the only kind for which the degree of accuracy (and error) is known. The Civil Service Commission requires that all its appraisal procedures be objective, job-related, reliable (consistent and stable), and valid (FPM Supplement 271-2).

An appraisal procedure is valid if it measures the knowledges, skills, abilities, or other characteristics it is intended to measure. For written tests, this means there must be documentation of the job analysis conducted to identify the KSAOs, the relationship of the test to the critical KSAOs in the job, the statistical reliability of the test, and when criterion-related validity is used, documentation of the statistical validity of the test as a predictor of successful job or trainee performance (the criterion).

Advantages of Written Tests

Some of the advantages of written tests cited have been objectivity, job-relatedness, economy, equitable treatment, and precision. The advantages afforded by their precision are considerably more extensive than is apparent. Professionally developed and valid tests consistently predict higher levels of performance. Thus, not only are group-administered written tests the most economical method of evaluating large numbers of applicants, they increase the likelihood that highly qualified employees will be selected. The benefits to the Federal Government in terms of quality and quantity of performance have been estimated in the millions of dollars.

Employees, too, benefit because their abilities are more likely to be matched to job requirements. As a result, they can perform or learn to perform the job successfully, an important condition for satisfaction and career progression. This, in turn, has been shown to reduce turnover and absenteeism, thereby effecting further economies for the Government. As taxpayers and citizens, we all benefit from the effective utilization of human resources.

Limitations of Written Tests

It must be emphasized that written tests are not perfect predictors of job performance. Performance on the job is a complex phenomenon affected by a multitude of factors. In addition to individual abilities and skills, factors such as motivation, quality of supervision, adequacy of training, working conditions, and interpersonal environment influence performance.

Written tests can only predict the extent to which individual KSAOs are related to job performance and, as with any measure, even that contains some error. For example, if a test predicted job performance perfectly, we would expect all who passed to be successful and all who did not pass to be unsuccessful. Rather, a test with good validity (.55) may have the following results:

		Test Performance	
		Fail	Pass
Job Performance	Successful	B55	A80
	Unsuccessful	D70	C20

Psychologists call Quadrant A "hits": persons who pass the test and are successful on the job. Quadrant

C is called "false alarms": persons who pass the test but do not succeed on the job. Quadrant B is "misses": persons who fail the test but would succeed on the job. Finally, Quadrant D is also "hits": persons who fail the test and would not succeed on the job. Cut-off scores can be set to maximize "hits" and minimize "false alarms" and "misses." In this example, it was set so that 80% of those who passed were successful. If all applicants had been hired, only 60% would have succeeded on the job.

Another limitation of written tests is that usually only cognitive abilities can currently be evaluated. Other important abilities such as the ability to "meet and deal" with others cannot yet be measured with sufficient accuracy and economy for use in employment tests.

Despite these limitations, written tests remain the most job-related and valid means of ranking large numbers of candidates for employment in compliance with merit principles. The Civil Service Commission has a continuing research program to ensure the validity and job-relatedness of its written tests, to develop means of evaluating other abilities, and to further increase the precision of tests.

Research Psychologist Wins Award

Dr. Frank Schmidt of the Personnel Research and Development Center and Dr. John E. Hunter of Michigan State University have won the James McKeen Gattell Award for Research Design for their paper "Development of a General Solution to the Problem of Validity Generalization." This prestigious award, now in its 12th year, is sponsored by the Division of Industrial and Organizational Psychology of the American Psychological Association.

The winning proposal is the best research design in which basic scientific methods are applied to problems concerning human behavior in organizations. The award-winning paper proposes the hypothesis that, contrary to the accepted doctrine, the validity of an employment test is not specific to a particular job situation but may be generalized to other jobs within a family of similar jobs.

—Brian S. O'Leary

SPOTLIGHT ON LABOR RELATIONS

Trends in Negotiations: November 1974-November 1975

A 9.8 percent increase in the number of collective bargaining agreements in the CSC's Labor Agreement Information Retrieval System file during the one-year period November 1974 through November 1975 indicates that negotiations are continuing apace in the Federal Government.

Early trends in negotiations can be identified by comparing and contrasting the incidence of occurrence of 46 categories of selected provisions in the November 1975 file of agreements with their status in the November 1974 file. As may be noted, many provisions were selected because of the frequency of their coverage in negotiated agreements, aside from their inherent significance to the parties.

The relative change in negotiation emphasis is clearly discernible when the subject categories are arrayed according to the increase in their occurrence.

The increase in zipper clauses, coupled with an increase in related past practices clauses, is indicative of a heightened concern with issues involving personnel practices that exist outside the negotiated agreement. (A zipper clause is an agreement provision in which the parties during the term of the agreement agree to preclude from negotiation all subjects not specifically referred to or covered in the agreement.) Attempts to assure that the agreement covers the totality of these practices over the term of the agreement are also evident. On the other hand, matters such as dues withholding and leave provisions, while maintaining a high order of interest and importance as evidenced by their sheer number, have not undergone the sharp increase in relative emphasis over the year that is characteristic of some other matters equally subject to negotiation.

The table shows the ten subject categories of provisions having the highest level of relative interest, 1975 over 1974. Without exception, each category has increased measurably and at a greater rate than the 9.8 percent increase in the agreement file itself.

	Number of Provisions		Number Increase	Percent Increase
	Nov. 1974	Nov. 1975		
Zipper clause	72	46	26	56.5
Employee counseling	694	447	247	55.2
Excused-time training	899	585	314	53.6
Transfer	391	261	130	49.8
Past practices	466	314	152	48.4
Union rights (grievances)	1506	1064	442	41.5
Suggestions/ awards	671	477	194	40.6
Technological displacement	528	377	151	40.0
Labor relations training	1159	850	309	36.3
Pay policy (generally)	357	262	94	35.7

Other surveys of provisions of Federal labor agreements in the LAIRS file have been conducted and published and are available for purchase from the National Technical Information Service, Department of Commerce, Springfield, Va. 22161. These include:

Maternity/Sick Leave Provisions in Federal Agreements—June 1975: a survey of over 400 labor agreements in the LAIRS file containing provisions on both maternity and sick leave. Key elements discussed are use of sick leave, requirements for medical certificates, and advance and abuse of sick leave and maternity leave. (Order No. PB-242478; papercopy $3.25; microfiche $2.25.)

Health and Safety Provisions in Federal Agreements—October 1975: a survey of health and safety provisions found in the LAIRS file of agreements. Key elements discussed are safety committees, equipment and clothing, reporting and investigation of unsafe conditions and accidents, and health service and preventive medicine. (Order No. PB-245195; papercopy $3.25; microfiche $2.25.)

Negotiated Grievance Procedures and Arbitration in the Federal Government—November 1975: a survey of negotiated grievance procedure and arbitration provisions in Federal labor agreements and a discussion of relevant third-party determinations. Key elements discussed include definition and scope of the negotiated grievance procedure, access to the negotiated grievance procedure, representation rights and official time allowances in grievance and arbitration processing, arbitration procedures and expenses, and advisory arbitration of adverse action. (Order No. PB-246637; papercopy $4.50; microfiche $2.25.)

Equal Employment Opportunity Provisions in the Federal Labor Agreements and Third-Party Determinations—January 1976: a survey of EEO provisions in Federal labor agreements and a summary of relevant third-party determinations contained in the LAIRS file. Key elements discussed include EEO committees, union involvement in EEO policy formulation and/or selection of EEO counselors, and statements concerning training, promotion, counseling, and complaint handling. (Order No. PB-248961; papercopy $3.50; microfiche $2.25.)

A complete listing of LAIRS publications is available from the Office of Labor-Management Relations, U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1900 E St. NW., Washington, D.C. 20415.

—Mary Quinn Boyd

WORTH NOTING

(Continued)

eral Government increased by 14,114 in the year ending October 31, 1975. Women accounted for 76 percent of an overall net increase of 18,493 in Federal white-collar jobs in the 1-year period. The number of jobs held by men increased by 4,379.

The 1975 survey data indicate continued upward movement for women within the Federal work force, with more women employed in higher grade groupings and fewer women in the lower grade groupings.

The percentage of all Federal white-collar positions in all pay plans held by women increased from 34.9 percent in 1974 to 35.3 percent in 1975. As of October 31, 1975, the Federal white-collar work force included 696,604 women and 1,279,141 men. Excluding U.S. Postal Service employees from the overall white-collar employment total, the percentage of white-collar positions held by women increased from 41.7 in 1974 to 41.9 in 1975.

Women constituted 42.1 percent of Federal employees in the 18-grade General Schedule (GS) pay plan or equivalent systems as of October 31, 1975.

☐ MINORITIES RECEIVING better pay: More minority group employees moved into higher graded and better paying Federal civilian jobs in the year ending November 30, 1975. At the same time, total full-time employment covered by the survey decreased by 11,794 jobs while total full-time minority employment decreased by 2,860 jobs.

Preliminary findings of a survey of minority employment in full-time Federal civilian jobs as of November 30, 1975, shows net increases for minorities in the middle and upper grade groupings of the General Schedule (GS) and similar white-collar pay plans. Minorities also registered net gains in supervisory and leader positions under blue-collar wage systems, according to the survey.

☐ MEDICAL QUESTION dropped: The Civil Service Commission has discontinued the practice of requesting medical information on forms used in recruiting and examining applicants for the competitive service.

The May 1975 edition of Standard Form 171 omits the question, "Do you have, or have you had, heart disease, a nervous breakdown, epilepsy, tuberculosis, or diabetes?"

Because many older editions of the forms that ask this question are still in existence, the Commission has required all agencies to cross out the question on such forms before giving them to applicants.

At the time of appointment, the employing agency may determine the candidate's medical fitness.

The change was designed to afford applicants greater privacy.

☐ CSC ALLOCATES $12 million for State and local governments: The Commission has announced the allocation of $12,408,000 in Intergovernmental Personnel Act (IPA) formula grant funds for Fiscal Year 1977.

The allocations are planning figures for State and local governments to use in developing grant applications for submittal to Commission regional offices. State and local governments can use these funds to strengthen their management capacities and to train their professional, administrative, and technical officials and employees.

☐ OPEN SEASON results: Results of the 1975 health insurance open season, November 15-December 31, 1975, show 257,000 Federal employees and annuitants changed their enrollment, and total enrollment increased by 57,000 or 1.8 percent to a new high of 3,234,000 enrollees.

In the 1974 open season, 175,000 persons made a change, and enrollment increased by 51,000 persons or 1.6 percent.

Some 130,000 persons, 4.1 percent of total members, changed to a different plan. And 110,000 persons, 85 percent of the total, transferred out of the two Government-wide plans (Blue Cross-Blue Shield and Aetna), each of which has a 35 percent increase in high-option premium cost for 1976. Of these, 88,000 transferred out of the Blue Cross-Blue Shield plan, causing it to show a net loss in enrollment for the first time since the program began in 1960, and 22,000 transferred from Aetna.

☐ SOUTH ATLANTIC region up, New York State down in numbers: Over the past 10 years the two regions to show the greatest growth in population of Federal employees were first, the South Atlantic region, and second, the Pacific.

New York State, on the other hand, was among the few States to decline in the number of Federal workers. It still ranks third in total Federal employees, however, behind California, first, and the District of Columbia, second.

Other States to decline in the number of Federal employees were Maine, Alabama, and Rhode Island.

The most growth in the past 10 years was shown in the States of California, Texas, and Virginia, in that order.

☐ POPULAR BOOKLET reissued: *The Federal Manager's Responsibilities Under the Merit System* is a 16-page booklet that provides succinct and nontechnical information on the meaning of merit in Federal recruiting, hiring, and promoting. It also makes clear the role of the supervisor in successful operation of that system.

Federal agencies obtain this and other CSC publications by ordering enough copies for the entire agency directly from the Government Printing Office. To obtain copies, have your personnel officer contact the department or agency headquarters-level personnel or printing officer, who should refer to CSC Bulletin 171-523 for further information. Cutoff date for placing orders for this booklet is November 15, 1976.

☐ AGENCY EVALUATION reports made public: The Civil Service Commission is making available to the public all reports on its personnel management evaluations in Federal agencies completed on or after July 1, 1976. The reports include findings, actions required of the agency concerned, and recommendations for improvement. Individual employees' names and case listings are contained in appendices that will be withheld to protect individuals because their release would constitute unwarranted invasion of privacy.

Meanwhile, copies of reports completed before July 1 are being and will continue to be made available on request.

☐ "AN INVENTIVE BUNCH": A 13-minute audio-visual program illustrating some of the more prominent accomplishments of the Federal work force is available through the National Audiovisual Center (NAC), General Services Administration, Washington, D.C. 20409. "An Inventive Bunch" is estimated to cost about $12 and includes tape cassette and 80 slides.

—Ed Staples

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